DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 233 998 SP 022 904

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TITLE "Effective" Clinical Supervision Conference Interventions: A Preliminary Investigation of Participants' Conceptual Functioning.
PUB DATE 15 Apr 83
NOTE 65p.; Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Special Interest Group for Instructional Supervision Symposium on "Clinical Supervision in Teacher Development" (Montreal, Canada, April 15, 1983).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Feedback; *Helping Relationship; Higher Education; *Leadership Styles; Preservice Teacher Education; Questioning Techniques; Student Evaluation; Student Teacher Relationship; *Student Teacher Supervisors; *Supervisory Methods; Teacher Effectiveness

ABSTRACT

A study found that conceptual functioning level emerged as an important variable in distinguishing between effective and less effective supervisory intervention. Four supervisors, with their respective supervisees, participated in the study. Participants were videotaped and observed, and transcripts of conference dialogues and participant thought processes were analyzed. A comparison of general behavior patterns associated with supervisors who were more abstract or more concrete was made. More abstract supervisors used "feeding" questioning strategies: information-seeking, information-giving, delimiting, and guiding. They also held questions in abeyance (witholding expertise but not support) and stimulated supervisees to conduct analyses for themselves. Only when they were unable to elicit satisfactory appraisal from the supervisee did they give direct feedback. More concrete supervisors tended to ask inappropriate questions, emphasized the giving of critical feedback rather than probing, and seemed to encounter difficulties in communicating corrective feedback. (JD)

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"EFFECTIVE" CLINICAL SUPERVISION CONFERENCE INTERVENTIONS: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION OF PARTICIPANTS' CONCEPTUAL FUNCTIONING

Paper presented at the 1983 American Educational Research Association Special Interest Group for Instructional Supervision Symposium on "Clinical Supervision in Teacher Development"
April 15, 1983 - Montreal, Canada

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OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Background

Clinical supervision has been used successfully for many years in the training of psychotherapists. Dissatisfaction over educational supervision practices prior to the 1950s caused a group of educators at Harvard to adopt the clinical model as an alternative approach to instructional supervision. This decision was based not on empirical research but on their understanding of practice and the conviction that it was "a method which meets the criterion of best existing practice" (Cogan, 1961, p. 12). Since that time, many writers[1] have attempted to articulate the ideas contained in the clinical conception and suggest ways in which the approach could be put into practice. Some twenty years later, however, empirical support is still lacking. Some of the research on clinical supervision in education (Eaker, 1972; Lovell et al., 1976; Arbucci, 1978) relies heavily on perceptual data, while other studies (Coffey, 1967; Garman, 1971; B.J. Kerr, 1976; Skrak, 1973; Shuma, 1973; Krajewski, 1976a; Turner, 1976; Reavis, 1977) attempt to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision in improving classroom

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[1] Blumberg, 1974; Cogan, 1958, 1961, 1968, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1976; Champagne and Hogan, 1977; Flanders, 1976; Goldhammer, 1969; Goldhammer et al., 1980; Housego, 1973; Krajewski, 1976(b); Krey et al., 1977; MacKay, 1971; McCleary, 1976; McGee and Eaker, 1977; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Reavis, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1975, 1976, 1977; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979.

instruction. The remaining studies (Zonca, 1972; Mershon, 1972; Pierce, 1975; Cook, 1976; T.G.Kerr, 1976; Squires, 1978) are largely exploratory, seeking to understand the roles and relationships that emerge in the practice of clinical supervision. Because of the possibility of the Hawthorne effect being associated with some of the data-gathering devices used in studies to test the effectiveness of the clinical approach (Reavis, 1978), any differences in results must be interpreted with care. As a consequence, Sullivan (1980, pp. 14-15) asserts that "research on in-class [clinical] supervision as a specific area is ... inadequate".

During this period, there was an upsurge in research on teaching. Excellent reviews (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Good and Power, 1976; Rosenshine, 1976; Good and Brophy, 1978; Brophy, 1979; Good, 1979; Peterson and Walberg, 1979; Hogben, 1980) record the recent findings. One aspect of this proliferation of research has been the longitudinal attempt of Joyce and his colleagues to address the question of what to do about students who are made uncomfortable by new teaching behaviours. This deliberation has led to the classification of alternative models of teaching (Joyce and Weil, 1980) and to the research-based premise that effective teaching involves searching for the amount of structure that a student needs and selecting models of teaching closest to the needed degree (Joyce, 1980, p. 24). In other words, flexibility and adaptability, which Joyce (1980) associates with levels of conceptual development and complexity, have come to be regarded as significant criteria of teaching effectiveness. In order to understand how teachers translate research-derived knowledge of teacher effects into the practical realities of classrooms, i.e., how flexible teachers are in their

use of acquired technical knowledge, a different orientation in research on teaching has emerged. This trend is towards the study of teacher thinking and decision-making in both the preactive and interactive phases of teaching. It appears to be part of a general renewal of interest in the analysis of the mediating process of thought as it influences and affects overt behaviour.

> If the results of such research [on teaching] are to be applied by individual teachers in their classrooms, however, adaptations must be made. Each class consists of a unique combination of personalities, constraints, and opportunities. Behavior that is sensible and effective in one setting may be inappropriate in a second setting, and it is the individual teacher who decides what is appropriate and defines the teaching situation. And so, if research is to be put into practice--if general rules are to be applied to particular situations--then we must know more about how teachers exercise judgement, make decisions, define appropriateness, and express their thoughts in their actions (Clark and Yinger, 1979, pp. 231-232).

The cognitive information-processing approach to research on teaching--concerned with how teachers gather, organize, interpret, and evaluate information--developed as a logical outgrowth of the behavioural approaches that have contributed so much to knowledge of teaching effectiveness. Using this approach, Marland (1977) conducted in Alberta a study of teachers' interactive thoughts. It was an investigation of the conscious thoughts and feelings of six teachers-in-action designed to redress the imbalance caused by the observational bias in classroom studies and to add new dimensions to the meaning and understanding of teaching. He saw the light that his study cast on the relationship between the cognitive functioning of teachers and the demands of their task environments as helping to "close the gap between educational theory and practice" (1977, p. 5). This tentative claim was based on the recognition that "teacher cognitions are an important mediating link between curriculum intent and classroom practice, between antecedent and

consequential events in the classrooms, or between what is, at one moment in the classroom, and what comes next" (1977, p. 3).

What is discernible in recent research on teaching could become an appropriate trend in research into clinical supervision. It would seem that what goes on in the heads of clinical supervision participants during conference interaction may provide the link between the conceptual model and practice of clinical supervision. An investigation into how clinical supervision participants construct the reality of this approach in practice could provide the opportunity to discover "grounded theory which is derived from data and then illustrated by characteristic examples of data" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 5).

Purpose of the Grimmett (1982) Study

The basic purpose of the study was to explore the clinical supervision relationship in the naturalistic setting of the pre- and post-conference.

The specific purposes of the study were:

1. to investigate the dialogue and interactive thought processes of clinical supervision participants in terms of the content and structural variations, i.e., the level of conceptual functioning.
2. to develop and assess techniques for rating clinical supervision participants' preactive and interactive verbal communication behaviour in terms of levels of constructive openness.
3. to observe and understand the dynamic interrelationships present in the conference between participants' overt communication behaviours and covert cognitive processes.

The Problem

The difficulty of experimentally proving the effectiveness of clinical supervision in education is largely attributable to the fact that there is insufficient empirical knowledge about the clinical approach. If, as Mosher and Purpel maintained in 1972, "the literature is devoid of research" (p. 60), Sullivan (1980) confirms that this is still the case. Consequently, one of the basic components of the clinical model --the supervisory relationship--has yet to be operationalized in a controlled experimental design where its effects could be at least partially assessed. Yet Goldhammer (1969) asserts that "it is the relationship that teaches" (p. 365) and that the conference interaction between supervisor and supervisee is critical to the effectiveness of supervisory intervention. Indeed, Preston (1975), in examining the effects of the tradional student-teaching supervision relationship on pupil classroom achievement, tentatively concludes that the quality of the relationship, which he found to be dependent upon the cooperating-teacher's perceptions of the student teacher and the level of self-confidence characteristic of the student teacher, may be associated with pupil learning gains. Increased demand for clinical supervision to come out of the womb and "be fully born to the world of public education" (Krajewski, 1977, p. 2), and the role played by universities in preparing supervisors and teachers alike for such an advent, require a clearer understanding of the educative influence exercised by the interpersonal relationship in the clinical approach to instructional improvement.

Mosher and Purpel (1972) describe the clinical supervisor as "a teacher of teachers, concerned with the content, method, and effects of

classroom teaching" (p. 64). They further emphasize the need for clinical supervision to espouse a rigorous analysis of teaching. Consequently, research-derived knowledge about effective classroom practices can provide a useful framework for supervisor-supervisee conference discussion (Grimmett, 1981a). More important, however, is the possibility that recent teaching effectiveness findings can apply equally to clinical supervisors as they do to classroom teachers. Yet we know very little about how flexible and adaptable clinical supervisors are to the needs of the teachers with whom they interact.

Blumberg (1974, pp. 167-168) attempts to address this issue by developing a conception of the supervisor as "interpersonal diagnostician" involved in reciprocity. Interpersonal diagnostician refers to the sensing of teacher need for and tolerance of closeness, support, and guidance during supervision. It includes the supervisor's adaptation of his roles as facilitator, counsellor, and evaluator to fulfil teacher needs for professional maturation in and mastery of the skills they perceive as contributing to the creation of more effective learning experiences. Yet we know so little about how supervisors render diagnostic judgments and how they select from among alternative teaching behaviours. It would appear then that no previous research in clinical supervision has investigated how flexible supervisors are in diagnosing and influencing the acquisition of teaching behaviour alternatives that meet the personal, professional, and situational needs of supervisees.

In investigating how clinical supervision participants related to each other during the conference, the following topics were addressed: (1) the nature of verbal communication during conference interaction, (2) the nature of the information processing approach used by participants, with particular reference to the structural variations

observable in their dialogue and thought processes, and (3) the inter-relationships observable between overt and covert participant conference behaviour (Grimmett, 1982).

This investigation of clinical supervision participants' conceptual functioning was predicated on a view of the supervisor as "a teacher of teachers" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 64) and of "supervision as teaching" (Goldhammer et al., 1980, p. 27). Because Goldhammer (1969, p. 365) maintained that "it is the relationship that teaches" and later, Goldhammer et al., report that "experience and research both suggest that positive supervision will not develop unless both the supervisor and the supervisee feel authentic affection for each other" (1980, p. 204), the study attempted to understand how clinical supervision participants relate in the conference.

Significance of the Study

What do we know empirically about the process called clinical supervision? What do we know about what clinical supervisors actually do? More intriguingly, what do we know about their thought processes and communication behaviours while engaging in conference activities? Why is there, as Blumberg (1974) and Mosher and Purpel (1972) suggest, a gap between the theoretical knowledge of helping relationships and the practice of supervisory behaviour, leading them to question the ultimate productivity of supervision?

It would appear that, in many cases, supervisory practice is deemed less than satisfactory. Teachers criticize supervisors for being out of touch with the classroom, for communicating procedural trivia,

and for engaging in a democratic game which makes the whole process artificial (Blumberg, 1974, pp. 16-18). Principals in ten British Columbia school dstricts reported supervision-related topics as top priorities for learning in a study that analysed their professional development needs (Storey, 1978, pp. 92-93). And educators in administrator preparation programmes would like to provide principals and supervisors with research-verified knowledge and skills that would stand the test of practice (Hills, 1975, p. 1). Yet substantive knowledge about clinical supervision appears to be scarce. Most of the questions likely to be asked by teachers, supervisors, and university-level educators have yet to be studied, and much of the current research into clinical supervision does not provide adequate insights or conclusive principles. Much of what has been written in the area of instructional supervision rests, as Pohland points out (1976, p. 9), not on research findings but on personal conviction and experience.

Given the sparseness of current empirical knowledge about clinical supervision, there would appear to be a need for exploratory studies which describe and analyse the process. The clinical model consistently emphasizes the supervisory relationship as a key to effective intervention. The pre- and post-conference phases of the clinical cycle provide opportunities for the researcher, through an investigation of conscious thoughts, feelings and behaviours experienced during the interaction, to begin to penetrate beyond the more immediate apprehensions of the interpersonal relationship into the deep structures of that interaction where both participants experience the conference experience and ultimately constitute its meaning and significance for the improvement of instruction.

An understanding of how supervision participants conceptually construct the reality of the clinical approach in practice would seem to be a necessary prerequisite to developing a practical theory that would serve to improve the provision, maintenance, and utilization of high quality supervisory personnel. For example, clinical supervisors may possess a broad range of relevant interpersonal and analytical skills but, if they are unable to "read" situations in which particular skills are required or cannot select the situationally appropriate skills, supervisory intervention may be less than effective. Similarly, intelligent application of interpersonal communication skills depends largely upon accurate supervisor perceptions of supervisee behaviour, and vice-versa, and upon warranted judgments and interpretations of its meaning. Such perceptions, then, are crucial to the outcome of supervisory intervention. It may indeed be argued that, in many instances, supervisees' willingness to experiment with different teaching behaviours ultimately depends upon the verbal and nonverbal behaviour of supervisors which essentially emanates from their covert cognitive processes.

This study, then, could provide new understandings of and insights into the conference process which may eventually contribute towards the development of a practical theory of clinical supervision. This knowledge, shared with practitioners through in-service education, could enable supervision participants to progress beyond a "democratic game" and could satisfy the perceived need of principals for professional development in supervision-related areas. In addition, it could expand the existing body of research-verified knowledge and skills in a way that reinforces the propensity of administrator/supervisor prep-

aration programmes towards the development of conceptual-analytical skills but also critiques the nature of that propensity.

Although much has been written in the literature about the interpersonal effects of overt behaviours practiced in the supervisory relationship, little mention has been made of conceiving of supervision participant thought processes as the critical antecedents of such behaviours. The focus in previous research has been on the expressive behaviour system of supervisors with scant reference to their cognitive map. Consequently, the question of the nature of the information that supervision participants process during the pre- and post-conference of the clinical cycle has not been the subject of any research study to date. Nor has any project attempted to determine the levels of conceptual development at which clinical supervision participants function when processing information interactively and expressing overt verbal and nonverbal behaviour. This area of inquiry may then be considered to be a potentially rich source of knowledge for improving the quality of supervisory practice and redressing the inadequate empirical knowledge available to supervisor preparation programmes.

Conceptual Framework

A review of the literature and related research found current supervision practice to be characterized by fast-paced, fragmented activities that involved little reflection. The clinical model appeared to be desirable in that it provided opportunities for conceptual-analytical thought but empirical knowledge about the process was found to be scant. The current link in research on teaching between conceptual

level and teacher flexibility suggested the usefulness of exploring the potentiality of a connection between clinical supervision and participants' conceptual development.

The conceptual framework for the study integrated Harvey et al.'s (1961) four levels of conceptual development (unilateral dependence of thought, Level I; negative dependence, Level II; conditional dependence, Level III; and interdependence, Level IV) and the corresponding supervision conditions (reliable unilateral, Level I; unreliable unilateral, Level II; protective interdependent, Level III; and informational interdependent, Level IV) with levels of constructive openness that Wallen (1972) suggests influence supervisees' conference role behaviour. This integration included the addition of a further supervisee role, role model dependence, and a further influence process, that of non-identification, causing a re-integration of the possible interrelationships between supervisor influence and supervisee role behaviour that Wallen (1972) posits. Where internalization led to supervisee responsible independence and compliance to supervisee unrealistic dependence, identification is seen as an antecedent not to supervisee counter-dependency but to role model dependency, while counter-dependent supervisee behaviour is seen to emanate from a non-identification influence process.

Figure 1 represents a diagrammatic summary of the conceptual framework. Preactive and interactive constructive openness is divided into seven sequential levels to match the four levels of conceptual functioning and the three intermediate transitions identified by Harvey et al., (1961). To these seven levels is added a further level to accommodate Hunt's (1977)

Conceptual Level	Supervision Conditions	Verbal Communication	Preactive/ Interactive Constructive Openness Level	Influence Process	Supervisee Role	Supervisee Conceptual Level
Interdependence Level IV	Informational Interdependent	FREEING	7	Internalization	Responsible Independence & Realistic Dependency	Level IV
Transition			6			Transition
Conditional Dependence Level III	Protective Interdependent		5	Identification (Source Attractive)	Role Model Dependency	Level III
Transition			4			Transition
Negative Dependence Level II	Unreliable Unilateral		3	Non-Identification (Source Unattractive Unreliable)	Counter-Dependency	Level II
Transition			2			Transition
Unilateral Dependence Level I	Reliable Unilateral	BINDING	1	Compliance	Unrealistic Dependency	Level I
Level Sub I			0			Level Sub I

Figure 1. Diagrammatic Summary of Conceptual Framework

finding that in school populations there exists a "Sub I" stage of conceptual development. In this stage, students are self-centred, unorganized and unable to understand the general groundrules for acceptable behaviour. In other words, they have not acquired the generalized standard that defines Level I functioning. Since Hunt only found this to be present in schoolchildren, this level is merely included to be true to the recent research on conceptual functioning.

Each conceptual level relates with particular supervision conditions. Potentially, freeing verbal communication behaviours, evidenced in high levels of constructive openness, may associate with interdependent supervision conditions just as low levels of constructive openness may associate with unilateral conditions. The level of constructive openness fostered by the supervisor is regarded as the determinant of the influence process at work in clinical supervision, which, in turn, may determine the role behaviour and consequent professional growth of the supervisee.

The conceptual basis for the current study is depicted in Figure 2. The conference dialogue and thought processes of supervision participants were analysed for their content and for their structural variations. The content analysis focused on conference critical incidents (those stimulus points in the conference where both participants recalled processing interactive thoughts) and the possible relationships that may exist with the interactive level of constructive openness present in the conference. The structural variations analysis focused on supervisor level of conceptual functioning and supervision conditions with the view to exploring what links exist between supervision conditions and inter-

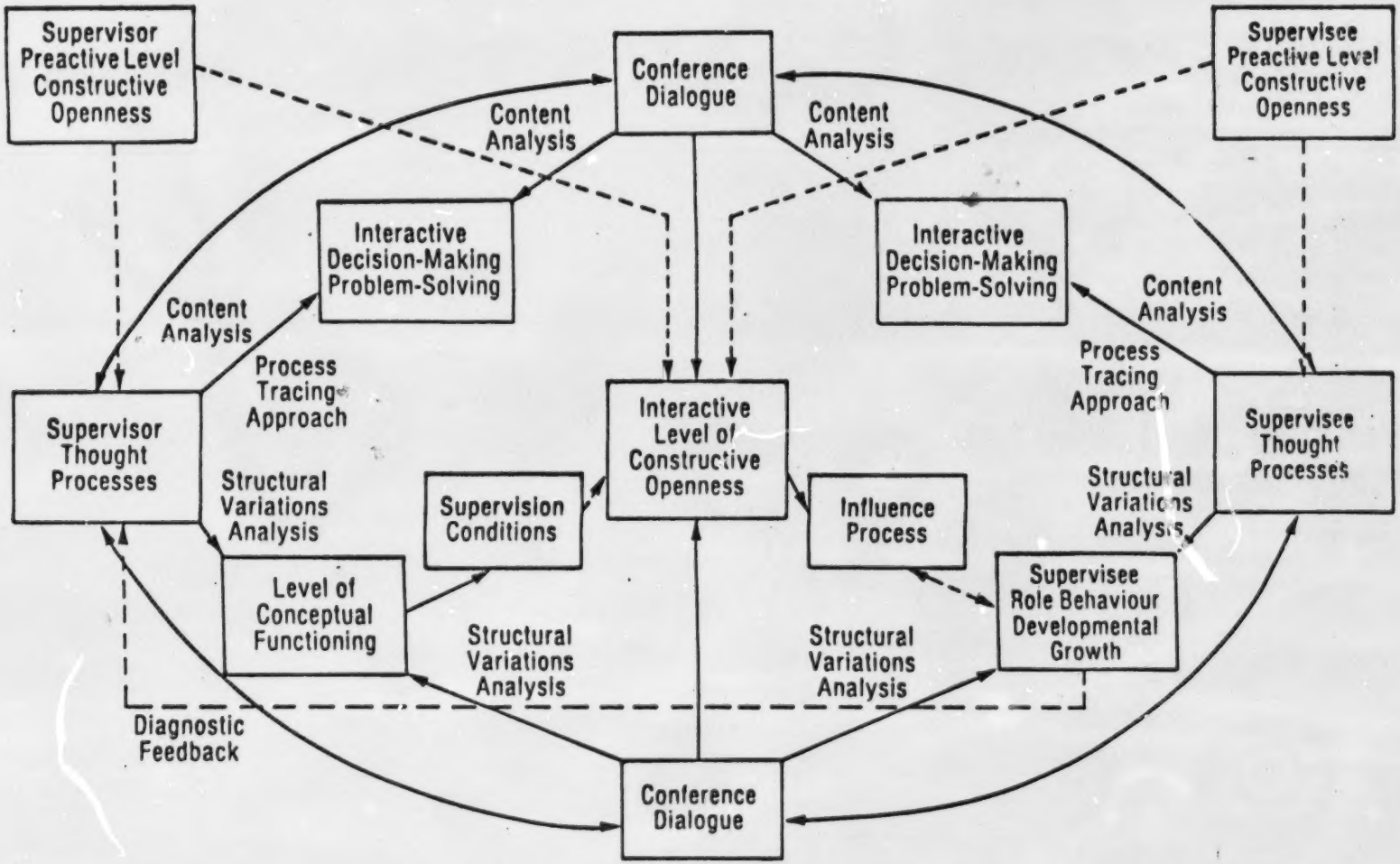

Figure 2. Conceptual Basis for the Study

active constructive openness level and between supervisor preactive constructive openness level and interactive level of conceptual functioning. The structural variations analysis also focused on supervisee level of conceptual functioning as an indicator of the role behaviour they were adopting and the professional growth they were deriving from the supervisory encounter. The analysis also explored the possibility of a relationship existing between supervisee preactive level of constructive openness and their interactive thought processes. The conference verbal interaction and influence process were analysed with a view to exploring the potential relationship between supervisor influence and supervisee growth and between participant preactive and interactive levels of constructive openness.

In sum, the unbroken lines represent the type of analysis undertaken and the relationships between variables that previous research has shown to exist. The broken lines represent potential relationships between variables which the study attempted to explore.

Methodological Procedures

This investigation was an exploratory study using the naturalistic observation method characteristic of a grounded theory approach, and an introspective technique called stimulated recall.

Four volunteer supervisors, one secondary principal (Supervisor 'A'), one elementary principal (Supervisor 'B'), one sponsor teacher (Supervisor 'C') and one faculty adviser (Supervisor 'D'), all previouslry exposed to the clinical approach, participated in the project with their respective supervisees. Each supervisor completed two cycles of the clinical model. 'A' Supervised 'L', 'B' worked with 'M' and 'N', and 'C' and 'D' intervened with 'O' and 'P' respectively. With the exception of supervisor 'C' who only managed two post-conferences, each supervisor was videotaped

conducting two pre-conferences and two post-conferences. Fourteen conferences were videotaped and subsequently replayed, within twenty-four hours, to both participants at separate times to stimulate their recall of the thoughts they had processed during conference interaction. The participants' verbal reports of their conscious thoughts were recorded on audiotape and, along with the audiotrack of the videotaped conferences, later transcribed. The transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes thus represented the principal data of the study.

Preactive data were also collected from all participants on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument to rate the level of constructive openness at which participants thought they would eventually function during the conference. In addition, each supervisee completed a brief questionnaire designed to characterize the role he or she had adopted in previous supervisory interventions.

Data Analysis Process

Each conference was initially analysed for supervisor level of constructive openness. The transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes were scrutinized many times. Differences in performance appeared to be more readily explainable by the "structural variations" rather than the substantive content of participant thoughts and conference dialogue. These variations occurred as a participant differentiated and integrated the events experienced in the clinical supervision process and served as indicators of conceptual functioning level. Low conceptual functioning, it was found, represents the use of "static structures with fixed rules' while high conceptual functioning employs "emergent rule structures" (Schroder et al., 1967, p.6)

Analysis of the transcripts was carried out at two levels. At a

micro-level, the transcripts were coded using ClinSuPICLAS (Clinical Supervision Participants' Interactive Conceptual Level Analysis System, a structural variations content analysis system based on the thinking of Harvey et al., (1961), developed specifically for interpreting supervision participant conference dialogue and interactive thoughts. Categorizations for supervision participants in each conference were then transposed on to a 0-8 scale, their accumulative value derived and a conference mean for each participant's interactive conceptual functioning calculated. A case study approach was used to present the micro-level analysis of data in order to illustrate how different levels of conceptual functioning affected the supervisory relationship during conference episodes and critical incidents.

At a macro-level of analysis, general patterns of thought and behaviour were derived from the data transcripts. This analysis looked across conferences for general themes pertaining to high and low conceptual functioning. Supervisee appreciation of the interpersonal relationship was examined and a comparison effected between the exploration procedures and feedback techniques of more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors.

The investigation of the clinical supervision conference relationship brought the variable "conceptual functioning level" to the fore and essentially rendered two of the research questions articulated central to the study's investigation: 2.2) What is the nature of the structural variations in each participant's conference dialogue and interactive thought process? and 2.3) What patterns of thought and behaviour generally associate with different levels of conceptual functioning in clinical supervision? Deliberation upon the latter question provided evidence discriminating "effective" from "less-than effective" clinical supervision conference interventions. The findings of the structural

variations analysis because they impinge upon the more macro-level conclusions, will be reported briefly. Because the sample was small and not randomly selected, generalizations about the population of clinical supervisors from which the subjects were drawn cannot be inferred with certainty.

Structural Variations Analysis Findings

The content analysis for structural variations in conference dialogue and participant interactive thoughts produced findings in three important areas: it provided a measure of distinction amongst participants according to their level of conceptual functioning, it allowed for a tentative estimate of the impact of supervisory intervention along clinical lines, and indicated the possibility of an association between preactive and interactive stages of thought and behaviour.

Participant interactive conceptual functioning. Two supervisors were found to function interactively at high conceptual levels while the other two were given to concrete thinking and low level conceptual functioning. Although supervisee interactive conceptual functioning varied according to different situational conference constraints, it also associated with the different and varying levels of their respective supervisors.

The two more abstract functioning supervisors, 'A' and 'D', seemed able to "read" their supervisees' needs and the situational constraints in a way that enabled them to "flex" upwards or downwards in their verbal communication to the "pull" of supervisee initiative. The two more concrete functioning supervisors 'B' and 'C', on the other hand, seemed unable to do this. Indeed, they did not "flex" to the "pull" of the supervisee but rather the supervisees were compelled to "flex" in the direction of the supervisor "pull".

Impact of clinical supervision. A gradual but marked increase in conceptual functioning over two cycles was noted in those teachers whose supervisors performed interactively with more abstract conceptual functioning. The opposite was the case with supervisees of the more concrete functioning supervisors: a reduction in conceptual level, particularly during post-conferences, was observed. Supervisees of the two more abstract functioning supervisors reported coming to self-derived insights about teaching during conference interaction, feeling at ease with the supervisory relationship, and deeming the process a successful means of intervention. Supervisees of the more concrete functioning supervisors recalled experiencing frustration with supervisor didacticism, discomfort in the role of supervisee, and were indifferent to its effectiveness in helping them improve instruction. The growth and development patterns, evidenc in supervisee conceptual functioning and confirmed in their comments at the end of stimulated recall sessions, served to emphasize that, while high supervisor conceptual functioning cultivated a conference atmosphere that encouraged teachers towards professional and responsible independence, low supervisor conceptual functioning generally fostered unrealistic dependency or counter-dependency in supervisees in this four-dyad set of cases.

Preactive and interactive associations. Supervision participant scores on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument i.e., levels of preactive constructive openness, were found to associate with levels of interactive constructive openness and conceptual functioning. The association between supervisor level of preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning was particularly high, perhaps indicative of the interdependence of language and thought that Vygotsky (1962),

Britton (1970), Chomsky (1972), Parsons (1974), Custance (1975), and Tough (1979) claim is a fundamental feature of human communication. Indeed, supervisors' scores on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument were found to have predictive potential in the sense that they anticipated the conceptual level at which supervisors were potentially capable of functioning rather than rendering an accurate prediction of actual performance. Because the interactive conceptual functioning of supervisors seemed to be critical in determining the impact of intervention on supervisee growth and development, the Preactive Behaviour Instrument might, with further testing and refinement, serve a useful diagnostic purpose for clinical supervisors.

EVIDENCE OF EFFECTIVE INTERVENTION

This section addresses research question 2.3, reporting the general patterns of thought and behaviour that appeared to associate with supervisors and supervisees functioning at different conceptual levels. The general patterns pertaining to supervisees are framed around their appreciation of the interpersonal relationship they experienced with their respective supervisors. Generalities relating to supervisors are integrated into a comparative analysis of the exploration procedures and feedback techniques used by more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors.

In general, the supervisees of more abstract functioning supervisors ('L' amd 'P') reported thinking favourably about the supervisory relationship, often characterizing it as based on trust and openness. Supervisees of more concrete functioning supervisors ('M' and 'N'), on the other hand, did not characterize the relationship as positively.

(Supervisee 'O' did not report having in either conference one thought that pertained to her relationship with supervisor 'C'). It would seem that then, the supervisees of more abstract functioning supervisors not only experienced an increase in their own level of conceptual functioning but also appeared to derive considerable satisfaction from oeing involved in the clinical supervision process.

The distinction between supervisors 'A' and 'D' on the one hand and 'B' and 'C' on the other has already been depicted in terms of interactive level of conceptual functioning. Because growth was reported by the supervisees of 'A' and 'D' but not by the supervisees of 'B' and 'C', supervisee appreciation of the satisfaction with the supervisory relationship only served to accentuate this distinction. The distinction was confirmed by the general patterns of thought and behaviour that emerged from the data yielded by more abstract and more concrete supervisors.

MORE ABSTRACT FUNCTIONING SUPERVISORS

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' tended to distinguish themselves from supervisors 'B' and 'C' by the nature of the questioning strategies and exploration procedures they used to facilitate supervisee discovery of insights rather than directly sharing critical feedback.

Questioning Strategies

Verbal communication has been divided into two broad categories of freeing and binding (Wallen, 1972). The findings of this study suggest that these categories can also be applied to questions. A freeing

question employed a carefully devised strategy for eliciting clarification and appraisal from the supervisee in a manner where supervisors signalled that there was no single or "right" answer. Rather, they adopted a curious pose, seeking help from the supervisee to understand the complexities of the lesson observed. In this way, the questioner's rank was removed as far as possible, freeing the supervisee to respond. A binding question, on the other hand, appeared to be loaded with the innuendo that the supervisor knew the answer and was checking to see if the supervisee could work it out too. Supervisees generally dealt with binding questions by trying to figure out what the supervisor wanted. This kind of questioning engendered stress in supervisees of moderate to high conceptual level potential. Because they felt anxious about failing to answer correctly, they seemed unable to think creatively about the range of responses possible, thus evidencing a drop in their conceptual functioning.

Four kinds of freeing questioning strategies, information-seeking, information-giving, delimiting, and guiding, would appear to be useful in facilitating supervisee growth.

Information-Seeking Questions. Supervisors posed information-seeking questions to elicit supervisee ideas. They also served to assess supervisee readiness to explore certain aspects of the lesson. Information-seeking questions, then, were intentionally tentative and open-ended without becoming obscure. As such, they were more easily appropriated during pre-conferences where the purpose was to find out information pertaining to the lesson to be observed. During post-

conferences, however, because the questions posed derived their substance from deliberations undertaken during the immediately preceding analysis and strategy phase of the clinical cycle, supervisors were sometimes in a position where they did know, at least in a partial sense, what information could be included in lesson analysis. How, then, did supervisors use information-seeking questions in this setting to facilitate supervisee appraisal and discovery? The technique observed in the conferences of more abstract functioning supervisors was to ask the question without giving any clue as to what response was expected; they also appeared to be prepared to accept and work with whatever response emerged.

Information-Giving Questions. On occasion the response of supervisees to an open-ended question can betray that they lack information that supervisors consider critical to releasing the analytical process. In such situations more abstract functioning supervisors avoided the temptation of telling them directly (which risked putting supervisee appraisal in jeopardy) by posing questions that supplied the relevant information. This involved wording the question in a manner which communicated a good deal of specific information but which also concealed the supervisor's intention and strategy. The consequence was their supervisees sensed they knew something without having been told by a superordinate.

Since this type of question was less common than information-seeking ones, two examples are included. At 22:39 during 'D's first post-conference with 'P', the discussion is focused on the supervisee's

concern that the class under observation gives him little feedback and, as a consequence, he does not know whether his attempts to stimulate total group discussion are misguided or relatively successful. Supervisor 'D' senses that 'P' has not really considered asking the group directly, but rather than risk demeaning the supervisee by telling him the obvious, she poses a question that presents 'P' with this option: "Do you think this class might be ready for a little more encouragement from you ... could you talk to them ... about these activities?" Similarly, at 28:20 during the supervisor "press", 'D' provides the supervisee with the key piece of information that is essential for him to grasp the extent of his instructional shortcomings in giving directions to the class. "Now let's see (thumbing through data notes), you wrote this on the board ...?" Although not technically a question, this utterance signals clearly through 'D's intonation that a response is expected and, as such, serves as an information-giving question.

Delimiting Questions. Not infrequently, more abstract functioning supervisors had to focus supervisee thinking. To do so without nullifying the exploration thrust of their facilitating role required the posing of a specific question that delimited the course of discussion to two or three possible alternatives. Although this strategy involved supervisor manipulation, it was a moulding of the task environment as distinct from supervisee behaviour, for the final choice always appeared to be made by the supervisee. This type of question seemed to be especially useful when the thinking of supervisees was meandering off-

task, particularly during the pre-conference where supervisors were looking for specific, instruction-related information, but also when there was a need to effect closure in either conference and the observation agreement in the pre-conference.

An example of this occurred in 'D's first pre-conference with 'P'. The supervisee has been explaining the activity he has planned for the students in terms of teaching behaviour expectations but, by 6:19, has not yet communicated anything relating to his expectations for student behaviour. Consequently, supervisor 'D' decides to focus him on this aspect by use of a delimiting question: "Will they be doing this in class, will they be doing it individually or in groups?" The supervisee begins then to describe this aspect of the instruction.

Guiding Questions. This questioning strategy essentially controlled supervisees when they momentarily seemed unable to cope with a situation or problem. This would initially appear to be contradictory to the freeing nature of the questions under discussion; in one sense, guiding questions did bind supervisees but the reported intent was to bind them in a way that freed them to continue their development. To employ this kind of questioning strategy successfully, then, supervisors had to disguise their intent. This they did by appearing to cogitate out loud, making use of an earnest, but never controlling, tone of voice.

An example of this kind of question is drawn from 'D's first pre-conference with supervisee 'P'. At 12:51 'P' has gone on to talk about lesson momentum as one of his great concerns, maintaining that the directions for the sub-group activity have to be clear at the students' level of understanding if the instruction is to flow smoothly. Supervisor 'D', however, had been attempting to establish a specific contract

for observation and she begins to think that the focus is growing too large. At the same time she becomes concerned that 'P' might not have rehearsed the directions during his planning. Consequently, when the supervisee reiterates that the directions have to be clear before the students can be expected to become engrossed in the activity, supervisor 'D' communicates that concern through a guiding question: "What have you thought about to help ensure that that [students becoming engrossed in the learning activity] will happen?" The message was clear, the effect was successful, but the interpersonal and professional slight was missing.

Exploration Procedures

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' generally explored the lesson with the supervisee rather than told them what their appraisal was. This involved them in holding questions in abeyance and retrieving them to be probed, probing for clarification and insight, occasionally pressing the supervisee towards greater autonomy and the reinforcement of insight, and ultimately the skill of withholding their expertise but not their supportiveness.

Holding Questions in Abeyance. Both supervisors 'A' and 'D' demonstrated the ability to hold questions in abeyance while the supervisee was still talking. During this time they would be listening intently, capable of processing more than one stimulus at a time. As a consequence, supervisors 'A' and 'D' were able to transcend the immediacy of the task environment.

This feature manifested itself in supervisor ability to withhold an idea that had occurred to them until the current topic of discussion had been exhausted. An illustration of this happened at 2:03 in D-P pre-conference #1 where, whilst listening to 'P' explain the rapport-building strategy behind his initial visits to student teachers on practicum, supervisor 'D' processes the following thought:

> I was curious at this point that 'P' didn't say that another reason for going to the schools was to become familiar with the student teachers' environment and the teachers that they were working with (Supervisor thought processes, 2:03, D-P Pre-conference #1).

Despite the relevance of the question that 'D' articulated out of this thought, she did not raise the issue until 3:50 in the conference dialogue, by which time supervisee 'P' had finished his background description. By waiting, supervisor 'D' was able to ask the question matter-of-factly; had she been given to "stimulus boundedness" and expressed it as soon as she processed it, it is possible that the supervisee would have withdrawn from an initiating role.

A similar situation occurred in the first post-conference between 'A' and 'L'. At 6:38 in the conference, supervisor 'A' probes the supervisee's purpose in putting the assignment essay questions on the blackboard. While expressing himself tentatively in the conference, 'A' processes a definite thought, the substance of which he hopes his initial probe will unearth.

> I wanted to establish there, the one thing I did question when I was watching the lesson, there were four long questions and why did you give it to them to copy down all four--that kind of bothered me if he wasn't going to use them for something. I thought it was kind of busy work, because the students could have chosen one and started writing (Supervisor thought processes, 6:38, A-L Post-conference #1).

Because the supervisee takes 48 seconds to address his first question, 'A' does not specifically ask why 'L' made the students copy down all the questions from the board until 7:54. As it is, the supervisee develops a satisfactory explanation for his instructional decision; but, since 'L' reported not having previously thought through his reasons for this procedure, supervisor 'A' could easily have stultified the supervisee's nascent ideas had he voiced his concern without first probing for a possible explanation.

Retrieving Questions to be Probed. This involved supervisors 'A' and 'D' in holding on to relevant points (which they considered required further exploration) in their minds whilst listening attentively to whatever the supervisee had gone on to discuss. There were two variations of this feature: first, where the supervisors veered away from a full exploration of an aspect of the pre-conference agreement because they sensed a lack of readiness in the supervisee to talk about it at that time, and second, where they deliberately withheld probing a point to which they sensed the supervisee was oblivious until the discussion of the data had opened up the way for further exploration.

At 3:55 in the first A-L post-conference, supervisor 'A', wishing to give the supervisee feedback on how he, 'L', broke up the lesson (a supervisee pre-conference concern that became part of the agreement), tentatively suggests that it happened in an interesting manner. 'A's tentativeness here does not stem from uncertainty but

rather from his desire to discuss the data pertaining to this concern in a manner whereby the supervisee could clarify and appraise his own instructional behaviour. The supervisee, however, failing to read the supervisor's intent, cues on the word "interesting" rather than the tentative tone. Consequently, 'L' attempts to clarify what the supervisor means and when 'A' asks how 'L' consciously segmented the lesson, the supervisee explains his planning for transition points in the class discussion. It is not until 11:23 that supervisor 'A' seizes the opportunity to link the supervisee's deliberate planning for transitions to the absence of any evidence of "jumping around" as 'L' attempted to lead the discussion. This 'A' reported doing because the supervisee had not drawn the connection for himself in the discussion between 3:55 and 11:23.

A similar instance occurred with 'D' and 'P' in their first post-conference. At 12:46 in the conference, supervisor 'D' tries to move on to discussing 'P's use of instructions when setting students into a sub-group activity, but the supervisee is not ready to talk about his pre-conference concern that the instructions be clear and precise. At that point in time, 'P' is more caught up in exploring how he involved the students and their ideas in the class discussion. Consequently, supervisor 'D' holds the new focus in abeyance until 27:10 when she retrieves the question about the supervisee's instructions for further exploration.

Both supervisors also displayed an ability to hold on to relevant points and retrieve them later in the conference on matters that fell outside the strict confines of the pre-conference agreement. But they were careful to broach these issues tentatively, thus permitting the supervisee initially to clarify and appraise what was

happening.

During the observation phase of the first cycle, supervisor 'A' had noticed that none of the girls in the class answered any questions. Believing this to be too important to be omitted from the post-conference discussion merely because it had not constituted part of the pre-conference agreement, 'A' initially raises the topic at 2:50. He does so, however, by asking how the girls respond when Anita, one of the better students, is present:

> I wanted him to be aware, if he wasn't already, that the girls couldn't answer any questions--but I wanted to ask him in such a way that we could talk about it a bit. That's why I kept referring to Anita who is his best student and wasn't there today (Supervisor thought processes, 2:50, A-L Post-conference #1).

Supervisee 'L', however, does not nibble the bait and 'A' decides not to force the issue at that time. At 6:38, however, he again alludes to the girls and their part in the discussion in the hope the supervisee will "bite a little"--but 'L' appears oblivious to this aspect of the lesson. Supervisor 'A', faced with the choice of telling 'L' directly, withholding the point until later in the conference, or dropping the issue, adopts the latter course of action. This he did, presumably, because he did not consider the feedback so important as to depart from his general strategy to elciiting an appraisal of the teaching-learning situation from the supervisee himself.

The most noteworthy example of this particular exploration procedure occurs, however, in the first pre-conference between 'D' and 'P'. When the supervisee articulates that he intends to allocate only five minutes to a sub-group activity, 'D' critically evaluates the time-frame in her thoughts: "I wondered if five minutes was enough time" (Supervisor thought processes, 6:19, D-P Pre-conference #1). She

decides not to pursue this concern during the pre-conference on the assumption that the events of class instruction would better serve to validate the time-frame's adequacy for allowing the completion of the assigned tasks. Consequently, the question pertaining to the time allocation does not surface until 34:11 in the post-conference when 'D' probes whether the students were able to generate the kind of data that 'P' was looking for during the five minute activity.

The various exploration procedures observed in 'A's and 'D's conferencing approaches differ only by degree; holding questions in abeyance and retrieving them at opportune moments all contribute to the need to probe for clarification and possible supervisee insight.

Probing for Clarification and Supervisee Insight. The purpose of probing in clinical supervision is to evoke in supervisees a clarification and analysis of their own teaching that will subsequently precipitate insight. The conferencing of supervisors 'A' and 'D' seemed to be characterized by this emphasis.

During the first post-conference between 'D' and 'P' the supervisor was able to probe so effectively that not only did 'P' acquire an insight but also thought that the interaction had produced the insight for supervisor 'D' as well. The discussion revolved around how effectively 'P' was able to use the ideas generated by the students to teach the concepts of the lesson. Sensing that he had perhaps presented the concepts more didactically than having involved the students in their derivation, the supervisee stated that one of his instructional goals is to stimulate students to want to be involved in a learning process. At 13:21, supervisor 'D' probes intently: "How can you do that?" (Conference dialogue, 13:21, D-P Post-conference #1).

Simultaneously, she thinks about her reasons for probing:

> It didn't seem to me that it was enough to still be saying, well, we want to do this. I thought we really had to start looking at more specific ideas (Supervisor thought processes, 13:21, D-P Post-conference #1).

After brief discussion, where the supervisee suggests that he has to think of questions that key into the experience of students so that their interest is fired, 'P' suddenly realizes that he evaluates his own growth and effectiveness as a teacher in terms of how he stimulates learning and involvement in students whom he has not known for very long, such as a workshop situation:

> I remember at that point, that really was an insight to me, but as I watched 'D's reaction, it appeared to be an insight to her as well and it's a case then where the supervisee, as a result of that kind of probing, was actually providing an insight for the supervisor (Supervisee thought processes, 14:42, D-P Post-conference #1).

The insight comes as a result of 'D's deliberate probing, a strategy that is, of necessity, concealed from the supervisee.

While supervisee 'P' was oblivious to 'D's probing strategy in the above example, supervisor 'A', during the second post-conference with 'L', was unaware of the supervisee reaching any insight as a result of supervisor probing. The discussion was focusing on how to involve students in an orchestrated class discussion and supervisor 'A' probes how 'L' handled the unexpected answers that came from clever students. In the conference, the supervisee does not pursue this issue, appearing not to take stock of the kinds of openings that such questions could provide. Consequently, supervisor 'A' re-directs the conference focus to 'L's expectations for students when they are instructed to take notes from the supervisee's introductory talk. What 'A' does not realize is that 'L' did, in his thoughts, recognize a need

to improve in the area of handling student questions during discussion:

> I make a mental note at this point that I should spend some time thinking about how I respond to student questions because it's a whole different ball game when they toss it back to you, to bring up an issue with you. I don't mind it, you know, but I want to deal with it better in the future (Supervisee thought processes, 13:11 A-L Post-conference #2).

Despite supervisor 'A's nescience in this instance, his strategy of probing had registered an insight in supervisee 'L's thoughts.

Towards the end of the first D-P post-conference, the interaction again focuses on the supervisee's discussion orchestration. Supervisor 'D' encourages 'P' to effect a comparison of total group discussion in his undergraduate and graduate classes. On finding that discussion falters only in the class under observation (the supervisee's sole undergraduate class), 'D' suggests that they look closely at the type of questions the supervisee poses when trying to stimulate total group discussion:

> When 'D' said that, I thought-what a good point [supervisor suggested that the way supervisee dealt with a class where discussion had to be checked and re-directed from time to time, might shed light on this class where supervisee experienced difficulties in stimulating discussion] -- again, something which I hadn't thought of; and I was so pleased that she'd pointed it out that I could probably, in analysing the concern I had with this class today, learn a lot more about it in the way I handle a similar situation in other classes. I guess now as I say it, I'm amazed that I didn't think of it myself; but in the other classes the situation is almost the opposite where the discussion flows and I have difficulty in checking it. In this class the discussion doesn't flow at all, the difficulty I have is in bringing it out. But in the analysis of both cases may lie some degree of answer or solution to the concern, the problem which I think I have (Supervisee thought processes, 39:36, D-P Post-conference #1).

The outcome of this probing by supervisor 'D' is further insight for the supervisee into his own teaching, namely, that he tends to ask open-ended questions to stimulate discussion regardless of the class level (graduate or undergraduate):

> Again, this was an insight [some of the questions were too open-ended for the group to handle] I was coming to, that I hadn't really thought through my questions as well as I should and that hadn't occurred to me until we looked at the hard data and I was able to see that the kinds of questions I'm asking for these students at the undergraduate level are really graduate-type questions, where students are used to thinking things through and articulating their own positions and opinions, and at this level maybe that, not that they shouldn't be led in that direction, but that the questions cannot be as broad and open-ended (Supervisee thought processes, 40:48, D-P Post-conference #1).

But the probe does not end there. Supervisor 'D' takes 'P' through three examples of questions that he had used with the class under observation, analysing those that are precise and specific and those which may expect too much of undergraduates because their focus is too broad. In doing most of the analysis himself, the supervisee's insight is deepened:

> The insight there is really beginning to sink in. I'm asking questions which are not really at the level of difficulty, they're too high above the level of difficulty for the students to whom they are put and it didn't hit me before that time--but that's what's going through my mind in this period of silence (Supervisee thought processes, 41:50, D-P Post-conference #1).

This last example once again evidences the similarity that exists amongst the different variations of exploration procedures identified in the data pertaining to supervisors 'A' and 'D'; for, although it is a probe for clarification and supervisee insight, the strategy involves many features that characterize a supervisor "press".

Supervisor "Press" for Autonomy and Deep Insight in Supervisee. Probing for clarification was generally followed by intensified probing that often led to supervisee insight. On occasion, however, it was necessary for supervisees to be extended even further. Such a "press" towards greater supervisee autonomy and insight seemed to be viable only when the supervisory relationship was trusted and the supervisees were

mature enough to handle the stress. During a "press" supervisors 'A' and 'D' tended to act in a paradoxical fashion. On the one hand, they entered into an interpersonal relationship which, on pragmatic grounds, valued "closeness" (Goldhammer et al., 1980, p. 203); on the other, however, they appeared to be objective in their analysis of supervisee behaviour. Too much objectivity, however, could damage even a well-established relationship. The observed key to effectiveness in the paradoxical complexities of a "press" was that more abstract functioning supervisors were objective only about supervisees' behaviour they deemed professionally inappropriate. It was when supervisors sensed an avoidance of professional responsibility and/or an ignorance of instructional shortcomings on the part of supervisees that they used a "press"; for it provided a constructive tension that appeared to force supervisees to enlarge their understanding of teaching processes by exploring difficult and delicate areas of their own classroom performance.

"Presses are deliberate reinforcements of probes" (Wagner, 1976, p. 89) so as to bring the supervisee to deep insight and autonomous thinking. Supervisors do not let supervisees off the hook with a superficial understanding of their own teaching behaviour but rather push them to extend that understanding to a deeper level. A supervisor "press" may then be regarded as an essential component of conferencing effectiveness; for it constitutes the rigour in the analysis of teaching process, without which clinical supervision could not possibly effect an improvement of instructional practice.

Supervisor 'A's press for autonomy and greater insight in 'L' towards the end of their first post-conference has been well documented in Chapters 5 and 6. Since a full description of a supervisor press

involves the reporting of many details and data, only one "press", taken from D-P post-conference #1, will be included here.

At 27:10 in the post-conference, supervisor 'D' comes back to probe 'P's use of directions for a sub-group activity, a topic she had tried unsuccessfully to address at 12:46. This time, however, the supervisee is ready to talk and volunteers his analysis of the data:

> P: It seems to me that I may have gone on too long [with the directions]. In order to make things quite clear, I may have been overdwelling on them (Conference dialogue, 27:41-27:53).

This prompts the following thoughts in supervisor 'D's mind:

> I agreed with that wholeheartedly in my mind ... overdwelling was a good phrase. I had actually gone through and written down for myself each different sentence or group of sentences 'P' used to describe each question and I didn't give that to him earlier on, I had done it mostly for myself as part of my analysis, I didn't at this point want to whip it out and say, look you said this four ways here for question number one, you said question two four different ways; because I felt that if I did that I would be whipping out a hidden agenda and I didn't want him to feel that I had a lot of things lurking back in the corner that I was going to pop out at him (Supervisor thought processes, 27:45; 27:53, D-P Post-conference #1).

Although she is, at this point, still engaging in probing for supervisee clarification and insight, supervisor 'D' here exposes her reasons for "pressing" the supervisee on the issue of his directions. The "press", however, does not begin until, through probing, 'D' ascertains an opportune opening. This occurs when supervisee 'P' alludes to writing the directions on the board:

> P: I really say them about three or four times, if you include when I wrote them up on the board I think that maybe with students at this level, to have said them twice was enough (Conference dialogue, 28:01-28:13, D-P Post-conference #1).

'D's thought here confirms that a "press" is about to begin:

> Now he mentioned the writing it up on the board and I was curious to know if we would ever discuss that because I know that

> I myself would have suggested to him that, if he were one of my student teachers for sure, "you might have written that up on the board much earlier than you did" (Supervisor thought processes, 28:13, D-P Post-conference #1).

Quickly 'D' seizes the opportunity:

> D: Now let's see (thumbing through data notes), you wrote this on the board ...? (both 'D' and 'P' become engrossed in the data) (Conference dialogue, 28:13-28:20, D-P Post-conference #1).

and simultaneously processes the following thought:

> I knew I was being very directive then, I wanted him to get that out about the timing of writing the directions on the board (Supervisor thought processes, 28:20, D-P Post-conference #1).

Supervisee 'P' is then "pressed" into examining when the directions first went on the board:

> P: Well, first of all I said it, then I rephrased it, which was a second time ...
> D: It wasn't until quite late, in fact, that it did go up on the board (Conference dialogue, 28:20-28:35).

At this point, a look of recognition comes across 'P's face, a phenomenon which his thoughts help to explain:

> I remember that this came as a startling insight to me [the way in which the directions for the initial activity had been delivered] Although I'd read the data-notes over beforehand, it didn't hit me that I possibly hadn't used instructional time as well as I could have done when giving the initial instructions for the first activity. It was only thinking through 'D's question that I came to that insight and I thought, that's really good, I'm glad I've been able to have that pointed out ...
> I remember here thinking, yes, she's pointing it out, that is the real cause [not putting the directions on the board until late] and yet she's doing it in such a nice way, I can't take offence at that at all, and it's really prodding me to the further insight that the reason why I took so much time over the directions was because I didn't write it on the blackboard simultaneously with giving the first lot of instructions; I was extremely late in thinking about that [writing on blackboard] as an approach to take and 'D' has led me towards that insight (Supervisee thought processes, 28:27, 28:35, D-P Post-conference #1).

These thoughts immediately precede 'P's conference acknowledgement of an instructional omission:

> P: Yes, I have to confess something there, I forgot about putting it on the board; it should have gone on the board when I was

doing it the first time.

D: (determinedly at 28:51) Why?

P: Because that way I'm saying it, they're seeing it, so they have two ways of processing the directions the first time, then I would only have needed to reinforce it once. By forgetting about it--it was like a bolt that suddenly hit me, I'm taking away from my own clarity here--you see, I'd gone over it three times before I put it on the board, whereas I should have started off standing up, describing the scenario and putting the notes on the board at the same time and then I only needed to go over it once more (Conference dialogue, 28:35-29:47, D-P Post-conference #1).

At 28:51, the supervisor "press" is extended. Because of the growing supervisory relationship, the supervisee welcomes the "press":

> Now in the past, if 'D' had said 'why' in the straightforward manner that she did, I would have felt a little bit uneasy or maybe even perplexed, but here our relationship has become such a good one where she has led me to the point of realizing that that is the question that has to be answered [why put the directions on the board earlier?], and I don't mind her putting the question so briefly and straightforwardly as that; in fact, I'm glad because it was all part of leading me to the insight [about the use of directions and how they could be improved] and I want her to be straightforward at this point (Supervisee thought processes, 28:55, D-P Post-conference #1).

For the next two minutes the conference interaction focuses on the questions of when and why the directions became clear to the students. At 31:58, however, 'D' re-charges the "press" as she directs the discussion to what the data notes may have further to say about the supervisee's directions. The supervisor's refusal to relinquish the attempt to expand 'P's understanding of his teaching performance into areas of knowledge to which he is apparently blind bears results:

P: Yes, I'm just thinking, in fact, that it may well be, it's only just struck me, that the number of times I went over the directions at the beginning was a contributing factor to the lack of time I experienced.

('D's reaction at this point, 32:36, is to exclaim "ah, ah" in a voice that suggests she has just realized it too; when, according to her thought processes, she had known all along).

P: That would have contributed to the slight degree of anxiety that was going on inside me (Conference dialogue, 32:34-32:43).

At 32:36 both supervisor and supervisee process thoughts relating to the outcome of the "press". Where 'P' is taken aback by his enlightenment, supervisor 'D' is delighted that the supervisee had pinpointed the major shortcoming of his instruction:

> Again, that was something that just came to me as an insight that my taking so much time over the directions at the beginning may have accounted for the pressure of time I felt during the activity and from 'D's reaction, it appears that it had just come to her too. All of these kinds of experiences are contributing to making me, at least, feel that the conference is a satisfying encounter (Supervisee thought processes, 32:36).

> I felt a real joy that you had come to the observation that the number of times the directions were gone over contributed to the shortage of time during the ensuing activity (Supervisor thought processes, 32:36).

The discussion continues to focus on the supervisee's uneasiness, and the relationship between this phenomenon and the noted shortage of time. At 33:28 the supervisee suddenly recognizes that his propensity for becoming didactic occurs when he is pressured by a shortage of time which causes him anxiety and affects the smoothness of the lesson flow.

For approximately six minutes, then, supervisor 'D' has "pressed" the supervisee towards deeper insight into his teaching performance. Not content merely to inform 'P' that the time lost in repeating directions at the beginning of the lesson compounded his problem of breaking away from a teacher-centred didacticism, supervisor 'D' induced the supervisee to think it through for himself. To do so, however, required more than an emphasis on facilitating; supervisor 'D' had also "pressed" 'P' beyond his current level of understanding. If the clinical supervision process is to make significant breakthroughs in supervisee learning and effect a positive impact on classroom teaching performance,

then the concept of supervisor "press" would seem to be an important one to consider.

As an exploration procedure, however, supervisor "press" would appear only to be effective when it is accompanied by a further feature peculiar to more abstract functioning supervisors, namely, the ability to withhold expertise but not supportiveness.

Withholding Expertise but not Support. Bringing rigour into the analytical process would be relatively straightforward, were it not for the emphasis on freeing communication, i.e. increasing supervisee autonomy rather than decreasing it, that clinical supervision espouses. To combine effectively analytical rigour with the role of facilitator would seem to require a further exploration procedure, that of supervisors withholding their expertise but not their support. This procedure involved supervisors in deliberately acting as if the supervisees knew much more than they did and in strategically communicating that the supervisees possessed the information and analytical ability that were critical for deriving new insights into the teaching process. At the same time as withholding their analytical expertise and critical feedback, however, supervisors were careful to provide, through a judicious mix of verbal and non-verbal behaviour, a supportive atmosphere in which supervisees could analyse their instructional performance. This procedure did not amount to supervisors withdrawing their expertise; on the contrary, their expertise was always available so that the "heterogeneity ... nurtured in ... the interaction of unequal levels of competence and dissimilar competencies" which "constitutes one of its clinical supervision's principal strengths" (Cogan, 1973, p. 68) actually occurred. Rather, supervisory analytical expertise presented

itself in exploratory questioning, not in didacticism.

This exploration procedure occurred when, during a "press", supervisor 'D' intentionally conveyed to the supervisee that he knew more than she did and possessed the information essential for fresh understandings into the teaching process. At the same time as reporting withholding her expertise in the area of analysis, 'D' was always careful to provide a supportive atmosphere in which 'P' could appraise his instructional performance. She was so effective in this particular form of exploration that, on two occasions during the "press" reported above, supervisee 'P' was convinced that the insight he had acquired was also new to 'D':

> When 'D' said--that's a good point--I suddenly realized that we were both coming to an insight, and that I found a tremendous experience, it really made the whole process seem worthwhile. We were both learning as a result of this probing and questioning and having to articulate things which previously had just been tacit knowledge (Supervisee thought processes, 29:47, D-P Post-conference #1).

'P' mistakenly thinks that his insight about the need to issue directions verbally and visually at the same time had not entered the supervisor's mind, when, in fact, 'D' had used a carefully devised strategy to bring him to that understanding.

The supervisee's perceptions are once again misinformed immediately after he has, at 32:36, pinpointed what 'D' considered to be the major shortcoming of the whole lesson:

> Again, that was something that just came to me as an insight that my taking so much time over the directions at the beginning may have accounted for the pressure of time I felt during the activity and from 'D's reaction, it appears that it had just come to her too. All of these kinds of experiences are contributing to making me, at least, feel that the conference is a satisfying encounter Supervisee thought processes, 32:36, D-P Post-conference #1).

Unbeknown to 'P', supervisor 'D' had intended to bring him to this

appraisal ever since the analysis and strategy phase of the clinical cycle. Yet she has done it in a way where the supervisee thinks the learning is truly collaborative. By witholding her own expertise as an analyst of teaching-learning situations but fostering supportive supervision conditions, she has facilitated the supervisee's discovery of aspects of his instructional performance that could stand improvement.

Sharing Feedback: Pre-conference Agreement Focus

On occasion, supervisors 'A' and 'D' departed from their reliance on exploration procedures to share feedback directly with their supervisees. Whenever this occurred, two aspects were noticeable: first, the focus of such feedback was always the pre-conference agreement concerns that 'L' and 'P' had raised, and second, supervisors 'A' and 'D' reported resorting to informing directly only if they sensed that their exploration procedures were not going to be effective in bringing a point home to the supervisee. This contrasted with supervisors 'B' and 'C', who reported interpreting their role as clinical supervisors in terms of an emphasis on sharing feedback with little reference to viable exploration procedures.

MORE CONCRETE FUNCTIONING SUPERVISORS

Supervisors 'B' and 'C' placed a strong emphasis on the pre-conference agreement when giving feedback. Unlike 'A' and 'D', however, their attempts at exploration were often inappropriate and their giving of critical feedback sometimes foundered because of unexpected difficulties.

Inappropriate Exploration Techniques

Two variations on the same theme presented themselves in the

transcripts of conferences conducted by supervisors 'B' and 'C': on the one hand, the supervisors were given to bifurcated judgments, causing a proliferation of what Good and Brophy (1978, pp. 363-364) describe as yes-no or simple choice questions that often seemed to frustrate their exploration purposes; on the other hand, they would sometimes make use of an open-ended question in situations that required a specific focus.

Supervisor Use of Yes-No Questions instead of Probing. Several instances of 'B' and 'C' using yes-no questions have been documented in chapters 5 and 6; indeed, chapter 5 shows 'C' employing a series of such questions, between 7:25 and 7:54 during his first post-conference with supervisee 'O', that thwart rather than facilitate collaborative exploration. Supervisor 'B' used yes-no questions inappropriately four times in his conferencing with 'M' (pre-conference #1, 3:01, 5:45, 6:08; post-conference #1, 5:30); supervisor 'C' evidenced this tendency six times in his two conferences with 'O' (post-conference #1, 1:20, 5:14, 7:25; post-conference #2, 3:11,3:33, 9:20); and supervisor 'B' exhibited this pattern on four occasions in his cycle with 'N' (pre-conference #2, 1:33, 2:34, 10:19; post-conference #2, 0:27). Since chapter 5 contains many examples of 'B' and 'C' frustrating their exploration purposes with supervisees 'M' and 'O', and chapter 6 includes detailed illustrations of this pattern in B-M pre-conference #1, and C-O post-conference #1, only the instances from 'B's interacting with supervisee 'N' will be included here.

At the beginning of B-N pre-conference #2, the supervisor poses such questions at 1:33 and 2:34, when his purpose of facilitating supervisee expression of lesson plans and concerns could have been better served by open-ended ones. An illustration of this would be to

transform his questions of 1:33--"So review is going to happen at the board?" and "during review will students be in their seats?'--into more supportive and facilitating forms of inquiry, e.g., "could you describe for me what will be happening during review?", and then guide the focus towards location and teacher expectations for students. There are times when it is inappropriate for a supervisor to pose open-ended questions but such times rarely present themselves so early in a pre-conference. At this point, however, supervisor 'B's exploration purpose is not frustrated because supervisee 'N' chooses to address the spirit of the question rather than answering yes or no and re-directing the conference focus. This is in contrast to supervisee 'M's dealings with 'B' and also supervisee 'O's conferencing with 'C' where both supervisees tended to answer the question directly and, during the ensuing momentary silence, changed the topic for discussion. The regularity with which this occurred is more likely to be put down to 'M' and 'O' thinking there was nothing more to be said on the question rather than deliberate obstruction on their part. Supervisee'N', however, is, at the beginning of her cycle with 'B', functioning at a moderately high conceptual level and this, more than any other factor, probably accounts for her ability to look beyond the wording of the question to the supervisor's exploratory intent.

What 'N' is capable of in the first minutes of the cycle does not, however, last for long. Gradually and, to 'N', imperceptibly, supervisor 'B's influence appears to obtrude the supervisee's thinking and, becoming less open to the rigour of the clinical supervision process, she experiences a lowering in her conceptual functioning level. Correspondingly, 'B's yes-no question issued at 10:09 in the pre-

conference is answered directly because 'N' is, by this time, displaying increasing aspects of counter-dependence:

> B: Now I'm going to be in there charting, are you going to treat them as if I wasn't there?
> N: Yes (sitting up stiffly), and if Wayne or Dion hassles too much, they'll go right out of the room. No, there'll be no difference in that way (Conference dialogue, 10:09-10:17, B-N Pre-conference #2).

Supervisor 'B's thought processes at 10:09 and again at 10:17 reveal how determined and almost defiant 'N's answer is here. 'B' suggests he has always found her to be nervous during observation, which he puts down to the supervisee's fear of evaluation and not to his particular style, and he reports having had discussions with 'N' on previous occasions about her ejecting students and his dislike of such a discipline tactic.

When, early in the post-conference, supervisor 'B' again displays his propensity for asking a simple choice question instead of a probing one, supervisee 'N' answers it in a way that thwarts 'B's exploration intent:

> B: Was it a normal day?
> N: No! OK, the lesson and that was but the interruptions weren't and the excitement was higher than normal with the cake selling.
> B: Do you think it met what you were planning to do?
> N: Yes, that all happened (Conference dialogue 0:00-0:27, B-N Post-conference #2).

Supervisor 'B's inappropriate use of yes-no questions gives the post-conference an unfortunate beginning. Not only does 'N' maintain as early as twenty-seven seconds into the conference that the lesson met all her planning expectations, but she then re-directs the focus, making it doubly difficult for the supervisor to engage her in any form of lesson appraisal. Had 'B' simply asked--"how did the lesson go today?"--he might have found it easier to facilitate a collaborative

analysis of 'N's teaching performance.

Supervisor Use of Open Question when Specific Focus Required. The use of yes-no questions when the situation called for supervisor probing characterized the attempted exploration procedures of supervisors 'B' and 'C'. This was not, however, the only kind of inappropriate questioning techniques used by 'B'; he also used, an open-ended question when the situation called for one that focused the supervisee's thinking.

During his first pre-conference with supervisee 'M', 'B' appears consumed by his concern for teacher behaviour. At 3:01 supervisor 'B' experiences some frustration because the supervisee is not articulating what his ('M's) classroom behaviour will be. The supervisor attempts to focus 'M', however, with a yes-no question about teacher behaviour which the supervisee simply answers in the affirmative, thus permitting him to return to talking about his expectations for student performance and behaviour.

At 3:57, supervisor 'B' switches the focus to the Grade 6 students and their instruction. His thought at this juncture indicates an objective of finding out "what his behaviour is going to be" (Supervisor thought processes, 3:57, B-M Pre-conference #1), but 'B' effects this re-focusing with the open-ended question: "what about the Grade 6s?" (Conference dialogue, 3:57). Because supervisor 'B' wishes the supervisee to focus on teacher behaviour, this open-ended question seems inappropriate for it does not guide 'M' to that specific topic. The supervisee responds by talking about the marker's duties with the Grade 6s and then becomes sidetracked talking about a worksheet he will use with these students once he has finished with the Grade 5s. In other words, the supervisee does not address the focus desired by supervisor

'B' because he, 'M', seems to be unaware of 'B's objective. This, in turn, arises from supervisor 'B's choice of open-ended question, which does not delimit the focus of discussion. As a consequence, supervisor 'B' reports experiencing as much frustration after using an open-ended question as he does after posing yes-no questions. This stems from the fact that, in both instances, the choice of question technique was inappropriate for what the supervisor intended.

Difficulties in Giving Critical Feedback

While supervisors 'A' and 'D' generally gave feedback through use of carefully devised exploration procedures, supervisors 'B' and 'C' tended to emphasize the direct giving of critical feedback according to the concerns that constituted the pre-conference agreement. Although all four supervisors conducted the post-conference with the observation agreement as its focus, supervisors 'B' and 'C' did not appear to cultivate a collaborative appraisal of the lesson. In giving feedback directly, however, they made use of untrue statements, confounded a straightforward issue and forfeited opportunities for supportiveness through "stimulus boundedness".

Supervisor Use of Untrue Statements to Disarm Corrective Feedback. During his first cycle with 'O', supervisor 'C' is concerned about the supervisee's group control and the consequent student inattention. At 9:30 'C' asks 'O' what she would do next time to ensure that the students were not inattentive and her group control was better. For seven seconds, the supervisee is silent. During this period, she reports in her thought processes, she wanted to ask her supervisor what he would suggest, for she senses that he has some definite ideas for

improvement. Because she does not feel the freedom to ask her supervisor any questions, however, 'O' makes two suggestions in a very uncertain voice. Almost as if he has read her mind, supervisor 'C' counters by saying that he has no suggestions, he merely wants 'O' to articulate tactics with which she would be comfortable. This statement appears to disarm the corrective feedback in as far as it implies that the remedies for improving 'O's group control are not obvious to an outside observer. The intent behind this statement is understandable; 'C' reported wanting to stimulate instructional analysis and forward planning in the supervisee and he knows that she will be unable to do this if the feedback on her group control devastates her confidence. But such a strategy requires consistency. 'C's credibility is severely damaged at 10:02 when he proceeds to list the things that supervisee 'O' should incorporate into her next lesson. Although 'C's intent was laudable, his interaction with supervisee 'O' is plagued by 'O's constant trying to figure out what he as supervisor wants her to say. It would appear, then, that the tactic of using an untrue statement to disarm corrective feedback merely serves to reinforce this state of affairs.

A few seconds after this incident, when bringing the conference to a close, supervisor 'C' succumbs to this temptation again:

> C: I think the lesson was well handled. The only thing affecting it was the fact that some of the children weren't attending and because of that, <u>I mean it wasn't a reflection on your teaching but the fact of control was somewhat lacking</u> (Conference dialogue, 10:41-10:52, C-O Post-conference #1).

Concerned that the thrust of his corrective feedback about group control does not rob the supervisee of her confidence as a classroom teacher, supervisor 'C' issues the underlined statement above. It cannot completely disarm the effects of the feedback, however, because it simply is not true. Group control is not distinct from but very much a central

part of the teaching process (particularly in the mind of a student teacher). This does little, then, to instill confidence in the supervisee; it merely exposes the difficulty 'C' has in combining the supportive atmosphere characteristic of clinical supervision with the giving of critical feedback.

Supervisor 'B' fares little better than 'C' in this regard. During the first post-conference with supervisee 'M', 'B' is attempting, unsuccessfully, to bring the supervisee to see that his directions for the Grade 6 activity were unclear. Indeed, the supervisee maintains that they must have been clear since he checked for understanding the two students whom supervisor 'B' least expected to grasp what had been said and they knew what to do. Half a minute later at 6:27, 'B' brings the focus back to 'M's directions. This prompts the supervisee to ask 'B' directly if the directions were clear enough. Because he recognizes 'M's need for reinforcement (verified in his thought processes at 6:28), supervisor 'B' tries to give it to the supervisee: "It seems to me that they were able to do it" (Conference dialogue, 6:28-6:31). This statement, however, gives the supervisee the impression that the directions were clear. Confronted by a direct question, supervisor 'B' has neither answered it honestly nor given 'M' the critical feedback that he has requested. Not surprisingly, the supervisee verbalizes that the directions could not really have been articulated in any other way and 'B' shows his frustration nonverbally.

Supervisor 'B' then decides to tell the supervisee. "There were a couple of things that I worried about at the time, <u>but it didn't seem to cause a problem</u>" (Conference dialogue, 6:28-6:34). Because supervisor 'B's thoughts at 6:28 indicate that he considered the directions as a

problem in that they caused the supervisee to lose a lot of instructional time, the underlined statement above is both unnecessary and untrue. The intent is indeed to reinforce the supervisee at a time when 'B' is beginning to cudgel 'M's brain with critical feedback. But it merely confuses the supervisee all the more who cannot understand why something that "didn't seem to cause a problem" should continually be brought up in the discussion. Clearly, if the directions "didn't seem to cause a problem", then supervisor 'B' could have dropped the issue when the supervisee did not recognize the hint that they could be improved in some way. As it stands, this incident is a further example of a more concrete functioning supervisor attempting to be supportive by disarming the thrust of corrective feedback but resorting to the use of untrue statements in the process. The immediate consequence is supervisee confusion; ultimately, however, it breeds mistrust and an unwillingness in the supervisee to accept and internalize any form of feedback.

Supervisor Confounding of Straightforward Issue. When dealing with the critical feedback pertaining to 'M's directions, 'B' succeeds in confounding an issue that was, in fact, straightforward to the supervisee:

B: There were a couple of things that I worried about at the time but it didn't seem to cause a problem.
('B' then repeats the directions about the scissors as they were said chronologically by 'M').

B: 1) You're going to have to have scissors--and all the students started digging in their desks for scissors--and 2) but before you get your scissors ('M' here emits a laugh as if he has had a sudden insight) you're going to have to make ... and then you started showing them what they had to do with the scissors.

M: Oh.

B: I wasn't quite sure at that point if some would be taken up with finding their scissors that they wouldn't listen to the second instruction.

M: So I probably should have mentioned that [direction #1] last.

B: Possibly. The students don't need the materials before they know what they're doing. (Tentatively) Does that seem to make

sense? It seemed to work today, though.

M: That's because I probably realized what I'd done, I cut right in and got them into the assignment (Conference dialogue, 6:28-8:10).

Two times the supervisee proposes a straightforward solution to the dilemma caused by his directions, namely, that he should have reversed the order. After the first time, supervisor 'B' says "possibly" and goes on to tell 'M' about the timing of materials distribution. In other words, 'B' is too engrossed in his own train of thought to recognize that the supervisee has seen his mistake. One possible explanation for this is that supervisor 'B' was not expecting 'M' to come to this insight so soon. After the frustration he experienced with the supervisee thinking his directions were appropriately formulated, 'B' seems so intent on telling 'M', that he misses the fact that the supervisee has already realized the point.

As if to bring this to supervisor 'B's attention, 'M' seizes the opportunity presented by 'B's reference to it working well that day to reinforce what he had previously said. But he adds a significant piece of information--that he realized during the lesson what he had done and rectified it as he was teaching. Supervisor 'B', however, misses this point completely in the conference as he apparently had missed 'M's adjusting of the directions during the actual lesson. Far from dropping the issue the supervisor continues to talk about 'M's faulty directions in a manner that suggests that he, 'B', is trying to make a complex problem intelligible to supervisee 'M'. This is verified by 'B' in his thought processes at 7:51. Although the supervisor sees his mistake clearly during the stimulated recall session, he did not recognize what he was doing at a time when he could have corrected it.

> He's already solved it, that part, you know, what was said there. So it worked with him, he solved it even more simply than I did, but I don't think I heard him say that, I don't think I heard him say--"Well, I should probably do that last"--while we were actually sitting in the conference (Supervisor thought processes, 7:51, B-M Post-conference #1).

The underlined phrase is the key. Supervisor 'B' has not heard and understood statements that are explicitly clear, resulting in his confounding an issue that, to the supervisee, was egregiously straightforward.

Opportunities Forfeited through "Stimulus Boundedness". The concept of "stimulus boundedness" was first articulated by Kounin (1970). He used it to describe a teacher behaviour that militated against the smoothness of the lesson flow by unnecessarily breaking up students' attention in a way that draws them off-task, thereby making them a potential discipline problem. It is characterized by a teacher who pays attention to details that are irrelevant, intrusive, and often immediate. The term is used in this study to convey supervisor preoccupation with similarly irrelevant, intrusive and often immediate details in a manner that interferes with the ongoing analysis of teaching.

Supervisor 'C's bouts of "stimulus boundedness" in his first post-conference with 'O' have been documented in chapter 6, but the second post-conference also contains incidents that illustrate his forfeiting of opportunities to present the supervisee with feedback. One such incident occurred between 2:04 and 2:29. 'C' has asked 'O' how she introduced some ethnic clothing that she used in the lesson under observation. The supervisee recounts how she first of all engaged students in discussion about special days that Canadians celebrate in

order to lead into the special boys' and girls' days (the garments on display were worn on these occasions) that are celebrated in Japan. This instructional strategy of leading students from their own culture and experience into an unknown realm of social custom is not, however, explored by supervisor 'C'. Because he is preoccupied with his next point--some positive feedback on 'O's classroom control--he merely says "that's a good parallel to draw" and quickly moves on to talking about the supervisee's group management. Although 'C's statement represents a reinforcement of sorts, the curtness with which it is expressed suggests a token gesture. As a consequence, a viable opening for giving supervisee 'O' supportive feedback is lost and the opportune moment does not present itself again.

Supervisor 'B' values similar action in his pre-conference with 'N'. At 9:18, the supervisee makes a suggestion about two students she wants 'B' to observe that is half-way to solving the dilemma she faces. She ruminates that they may be potential discipline problems because the work she gives them is somewhat tedious and long. Supervisor 'B', however, still focusing on the previous discussion's thoughts where he was convinced that 'N' had pre-judged the data-chart he had shared with her, curtails discussion with "let's wait and see what the pattern is". Ironically, just as the supervisee is beginning to speculate that the root cause of the problem may lie in her instructional planning, supervisor 'B' ends the discussion. When the supervisee appears ready for further supervisor probing, 'B' is preoccupied by 'N's reaction to his handiwork. As a consequence, an opportunity to link what the supervisee is saying here with what he (in his thought processes at 9:18) has suspected all along--namely, that it is something in her teaching /

behaviour that is at fault -- it forfeited because of supervisor 'B's inability to transcend the immediate (and irrelevant) thoughts that fill his mind.

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE

General patterns of thought and behaviour derived from the data contained in transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes were reported in this section. Supervisee appreciation of the interpersonal relationship appeared to be characterized more positively by 'L' and 'P' than by 'M', 'N' and 'O'. Since 'L' and 'P' were supervisees of supervisors 'A' and 'D', a comparison between more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors was made.

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' tended to explore the lessons under analysis in a manner where the supervisees entered into the analysis of teaching as colleagues. As such, they employed four kinds of freeing questioning strategies that have been labelled as: information-seeking, information giving, delimiting, and guiding questions. In addition, their exploration procedures were characterized by: holding questions in abeyance; retrieving relevant questions to be probed; probing for supervisee clarification, analysis and insight; supervisor "press" for supervisee autonomy; and withholding expertise but not support. Only when they were unable to facilitate conjoint lesson apparisal did supervisors 'A' and 'D' give feedback directly. On these occasions they were careful to ensure that the feedback was supportive and that it focussed on the concerns contained in the pre-conference agreement.

Supervisors 'B' and 'C' tended, in contrast to 'A' and 'D', to focus more on giving critical feedback based on the pre-conference agreement rather than on using exploration procedures to facilitate supervisee analysis. Their attempts at exploration were generally characterized by inappropriate but prolific use of yes-no questions and by use of open-ended questions when the supervisor intended a specific focus. In giving feedback both supervisors encountered difficulties; to disarm the effects of corrective feedback, supervisors 'B' and 'C' made use of statements that were untrue; in wishing to make the complexities of the teaching process intelligible to the supervisee, 'B' confounded an issue that was straightforward; and both 'B' and 'C' forfeited through "stimulus boundedness" opportunities to render critical feedback when their respective supervisees appeared to be open to receiving it.

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